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Volume XXXIV

JUNE, 1939

Number 9

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THE CLASSICAL JOURNAL

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Editorial

OBERLIN IN RETROSPECT

We have all returned from Oberlin by various routes and are now enjoying in retrospect one of the most enjoyable meetings of recent years.¹ We feel, however, that we should give public expression to the delight we have experienced.

First we wish to offer to President DeWitt our congratulations upon his excellently chosen program. Only those who have labored over this problem can fully appreciate its difficulty. For an unusually complete round of social activities we are greatly indebted to Professor Lord's local committee and to the administrative officers of Oberlin College. The College was indeed unusually generous—she even loaned us President Wilkins for a brilliant address upon the ancient classics and their modern daughters, an address that drew its sincerity from the speaker's own studies in Latin and Greek, and especially in Italian.

Nor shall we soon forget the beautiful presentation of Mimes I and VII of Herodas and Idyls II and XV of Theocritus, with exquisite music; capped by unusually effective dancing to ancient themes, but in all the perfection of the modern dance.

And then there were one's friends—more of them this year than usual; and the lobby of Oberlin Inn was a very homelike place in which to engage in comfortable chats. It is very stimulating to meet in a community where everything centers around the college,

¹ For the program and other details cf. the Editorial in the March issue, 321-325.

where we sleep in college dormitories, eat in a hotel run by the college—in fact are back at college again. We are sure that all our members were thrilled to be in the quiet and stimulating atmosphere of Oberlin with none of the distractions of a city, and we see no good reason why we shouldn't tell our friendly hosts just that.

E.T.

THE EDITORSHIP

The editor expects to spend the year 1939–1940 in Italy and Greece unless European unrest makes such a visit impossible. He is glad to announce that during his absence the Assistant Editor, Professor Thomas Shearer Duncan, of Washington University, has consented to act in his stead. He takes this occasion to ask that not only the members of the editorial staff, but all others connected with the *JOURNAL* give to Dr. Duncan the same loyal support they have given to him. He wishes also to thank Dr. Duncan in advance for his willingness to take upon himself this very considerable additional burden.

E.T.

THE CRITICAL SECOND YEAR OF LATIN¹

By A. MILDRED FRANKLIN
Wilson College, Chambersburg, Pa.

When Caesar reduced the Gauls to submission at Alesia and left the country at peace, he little knew that the struggle for Gaul would still be going on two thousand years later, and that he would be subjected to an attack far more persistent than that of Vercingetorix and more baffling than the slippery Ambiorix. The student wails, "It is too hard, and I don't know what it is all about." The sympathetic parent says, "It is a dreadful bore, reading about marches and battles all the year. I am sure Johnny will get more value from some other subject." The anxious classicist, remembering that only 45 per cent of the students of Caesar continue Latin for the third year, ponders, "Would it not be better to give the students more varied reading, with a scientifically planned advance?" This latter thought has resulted in the many reading books for the second year which have appeared since 1920, providing for the first semester graduated reading from many sources and for the second semester selections from Caesar, often cut or simplified. These books furnish a most helpful method of meeting the problem. They usually include such a generous amount from Caesar, however, that the teacher still needs to make a careful choice. It seems worth while, therefore, to concentrate upon the question, "How can the reading of Caesar, whether in a second-year book or in a complete text, be made of the greatest value to the student?" Since the student must be our first care, we should reckon most earnestly with his complaint, "Caesar is too hard, and I do not know what it is all about."

¹ Read at the meeting of the Classical Section of the State Education Association of West Virginia, at Huntington, W. Va.

Certainly we must admit frankly that our difficulties would be far less if only Caesar had realized that he was writing a second-year book for boys and girls who would be living two thousand years later, to whom those countless Gallic tribes would be much more dismaying than they were to Caesar himself, and to whom the indirect quotation would seem a manner of speech that meant nothing whatsoever. What would Caesar have done, had he realized that he must meet these young Americans, and so conquer as not to leave them slaughtered—dead to Latin forevermore—but, instead, with the conviction that was reached by many intelligent Gauls who came to know him, that the Roman was bringing to them many things of inestimable worth? Certainly he would have shown for these students the same consideration that he did for his raw recruits: he would have handled them gently at first, and would not have thrust them instantly, all untried, into the very thickest of the fight. Since Caesar left this pedagogical task neglected, we must try to act as his auxiliary forces.

After the College Entrance Examination Board stated, a number of years ago, that the amount of reading covered in the second year of Latin should be the equivalent of the first four books of Caesar, the practice grew in a large number of schools of reading those four books and no others. The increasing use of the selected material in the second-year books is now operating to give a broader survey of Caesar, but there is still many a college freshman who seems to have no glimmering of what lies beyond that magic four. And yet, if we have time to see only half of a play, which do we prefer, to listen to the preliminaries of the first half and never know whether the hero really wins the lovely maiden, or do we choose rather to see the latter half and witness the thrilling finale? I am convinced that most of us would choose the latter. Why, then, do we let our students struggle with the complicated analysis of Gallic politics, which fills so many pages of Book One, yet never know the outcome? Inevitably the pupil gets the feeling that the *Bellum Gallicum* is a never-ending succession of marches and battles, leading nowhere, and with the cards always stacked in Caesar's favor. On the other hand, if the students see the terrific blows directed upon Caesar's forces by Ambiorix, read

of Caesar baffled at Gergovia, and, above all else, share his fight at Alesia with his back against the wall, the conqueror then becomes a human being, and his success a thrilling thing, won against terrific odds, by sheer force of intelligence, endless hard work, and the gift for leadership. There is a situation to rouse the enthusiasm of any red-blooded young person.

In choosing our reading from Caesar, why should we not do what the movie producer does when he takes a book of Dickens and turns it into a play? He must compress into two hours a book which it would require two or three days to read. In that condensation every page is meticulously weighed, and only those essential to the plot or those of supreme interest—the thrillers, if you wish—are considered. One who knows only the play carries away a vivid impression of the main theme, the chief characters, and the most stirring events. Granted that he had only two hours to give to that subject, he has the best knowledge of it that is obtainable. With our students in second-year Latin and their insufficient time for all the pages of the *Bellum Gallicum*, we are faced with an identical problem. Also our aim is the same: to give the liveliest and most illuminating view of Caesar and his achievements that our limited time will permit. I wish, therefore, to go through the *Bellum Gallicum*, weighing each episode to see what are its claims to be included in our scenario. I shall apply three tests: significance for the development of the story, inherent value of the subject matter, and suitability to sophomores in high school on the ground both of difficulty and of the natural appeal which the passage offers. Within the major scenes I shall do as little cutting as possible, so that the student may feel that he knows those parts in full. On the other hand, Caesar's annalistic organization necessarily includes in each book material that is not an essential part of the main episode—skirmishing with unimportant tribes, for example, or the quartering of the legions for the winter. Since to the student such passages blur the lines of main development, there will be definite gain from their omission. I shall therefore pass them by with no further comment. Let us see, then, if we can find from the 347 chapters which make up the *Bellum Gallicum* 156 chapters, the total of the first four books, that will meet our requirements.

At the outset of the first book we meet the words, *Gallia est omnis divisa in partes tres*. For old times' sake that chapter surely must be included. Also it is the necessary introduction.

Chapters two to twenty-nine are concerned with the Helvetian campaign, to which I shall first apply the test of suitability to student needs. In my judgment it leaves much to be desired. The chief interest lies in the ambitious plans and crafty schemes of Orgetorix and Dumnorix. With careful interpretation by the teacher, and with the aid of plays like *The Conspiracy of Orgetorix*, by B. L. Horner,² or the *Dumnorix*, by Max Radin,³ the class can be led to visualize these able and unscrupulous plotters. Orgetorix, however, occupies the stage for only three chapters. As for Dumnorix, though he is the villain of the story and plays a pivotal part, still he does his work off stage and only rarely appears in person. To the majority of students the masterly character sketch which Caesar gives of this Gaul is liable to be less impressive than the vivid figures of Sabinus, Cotta, Ambiorix, and Vercingetorix, who are all seen in action. But the greatest difficulty comes from the fact that the deeds of Dumnorix are intertwined with a narrative that is complicated and slow-moving. Not only are there the tribal names and rivalries of Helvetians, Haeduans, Sequanians, Allobroges, and a dozen lesser peoples, but there is also the factional strife within each tribe of nationalist against Roman sympathizer, of would-be king against the established government, and even of brother against brother. The action is slow to start, and one after the other of the actors is checkmated: Orgetorix is tried for treason by his people, but after his death they adopt his plans; their desired line of march is blocked by Caesar; his plans are delayed by the machinations of Dumnorix; that Gaul in turn is baffled by his own tribesmen in conference with Caesar; finally Caesar's careful arrangements for a battle are voided by the panic of Considius. For twenty-four chapters the stalemate continues. Furthermore there are five long chapters of indirect discourse, difficult because of the form, the extreme compression of the style, and the tangled political situation involved. These

² CLASSICAL JOURNAL XIII, 61.

³ *Ibid.*, XIII, 314.

chapters, as hard as anything in Caesar, confront the student near the beginning of the book, at the very time when the class in its rate of advance rivals the famed Arar, "moving with such incredible slowness that the eye can scarcely distinguish in which direction it is going." Small wonder it is if after twenty-four chapters like these many members of the class are conditioned to the belief that Caesar is never supposed to mean anything. In proposing to eliminate this famed Helvetian episode, I realize that I am being radical. Even in the selected material of the second-year books it is almost invariably included. In these books it is, however, regularly much cut and simplified; thus my objections to it are largely met. But even so I do not feel that this preliminary campaign has the gripping interest of much of the material in the later books.

The second half of the book, dealing with Ariovistus, is far more satisfactory as regards Caesar's chief protagonist. The figure of the wily, rapacious, cruel, and boastful German is vividly drawn. Also the danger consequent upon the migration of great numbers of Germans into Gaul, a buffer state to Italy, was very great. The struggle with Ariovistus thus fulfils the first two requisites: it is important for the development of the story and is inherently valuable. But in suitability for the students the episode is far from satisfactory. About half the pages are in indirect discourse, and both matter and style are difficult. Children constitutionally prefer the reality of action to the shadow of oratory; and if, still worse, the speeches are given to them at second hand, they are receiving the shadow of the shadow. I am convinced that much of the unpopularity of Caesar is due to the succession of speeches in Book One. Furthermore, if we omit the Helvetian episode, this campaign against the Germans would come immediately after chapter one. If we tackled the indirect discourse at that stage, we should find our pupils in a worse panic before those Germans than were Caesar's soldiers; and the result would be more disastrous, for we should not be able, as Caesar was, to bully and bluff them into continuing the campaign, but they would desert by the wholesale.

What shall we do then? I recommend heroic surgery: postpone the campaign against the Germans for a later time, when the stu-

dents will be better able to cope with it. This may seem like a desperate measure, but I am persuaded that the need is desperate. The change will not produce incoherence, for the battle with Ario-vistus could very naturally be read in conjunction with the account of the Germans in Book Four, being taken in place of the campaign against the Usipetes and the Tencteri, which in any case I should desire to omit. Even after the passage was thus transposed, I should in dealing with it depart from my usual practice of keeping an episode intact, and would instead prune away every line of indirect quotation that was not vitally necessary; also the chapters that are filled with futile attempts and false alarms.

What are the parts that must be retained? Chapters thirty-one to thirty-three with their vivid account of the situation in Gaul resulting from the overbearing rule of Ario-vistus, are of course inevitable. Omitting the perplexing account of the first messages between Caesar and Ario-vistus, we can pass naturally from Caesar's resolve to drive the invader out of Gaul to the panic of his soldiers at the thought of meeting the Germans. That picture of the terror that broke the nerve of the Romans is most stirring. Nothing could better impress on a class the reality of the dangers, nor Caesar's power as a leader of men. His speech is masterly, with its rebuke for their presumption in trying to dictate to their general, its reminder of their past victories, its assured confidence—whether real or assumed—in the speaker's own future success, and his magnificent bluff when he proclaims his readiness to go forward with the tenth legion alone. If the soldiers had refused to rise to that bombastic challenge, Caesar's campaigning in Gaul would have been over! As it was, he gained immeasurably with his legions from his handling of the mutiny. Following this harangue, we can with no obvious break omit the account of the parley between Caesar and Ario-vistus and the delaying tactics of the latter, and go immediately to the swift and vivid action of the battle in chapters fifty to fifty-three. If we handle the campaign of Ario-vistus in this way, we have reduced it from twenty-four chapters to ten, and have left the main characters and incidents standing out, clear and dramatic.

If for the time being we read from Book One only the first chap-

ter, preliminary discussion will be needed on such topics as the factions of the Gauls, the nature of Caesar's commission in Gaul, and the migration of the Helvetians. All these points can be made more clear to the class, I believe, by a page or two of English summary, a map, and some class discussion than they would be through the medium of the Latin when it would be read so slowly.

If, after this introduction, we pass to Book Two, we shall meet in the first four chapters a picture of wide-spread disturbance in Belgium which is a simpler replica of the intertribal animosities set forth in Book One, and which can with very little added detail be included in the initial survey. The next eleven chapters also are neither stirring nor of great significance. Chapter four, with its enumeration of sixteen tribes that have conspired against the Romans, I should be particularly eager to omit. The appalling number of proper names in Caesar—there are 440 in the Index—is, I believe, another reason why students call Caesar hard. Except for the very rare youngster who delights in crack-jaw names, the mere pronunciation of these Gallic appellatives is paralyzing and sets up a barrier to understanding. We could well omit every chapter that contains such a barrage of names. Even at the best the list will be imposing enough.

In the middle of chapter fifteen we come to the description of the Nervii. And now at last we have a people worthy of the steel of Caesar and of the attention of our class. During the next twelve chapters we are swept along breathlessly—not a wasted word, not a dull moment. At the outset we are startled to find that Caesar, though he saw pickets of the enemy across the river, allowed his soldiers to scatter and begin entrenching the camp. What was Caesar thinking of? He actually seemed to invite the disaster he so nearly met. But from the pedagogical side this lapse of military technique is all to the good. It is most cheering to the schoolboy to find that Caesar was really human, that he could make a mistake, that he had to learn his science gradually. The teacher should therefore seize the opportunity which this lapse of efficiency gives him to turn Caesar from a military machine into a real man. Caesar soon learns his mistake. Out from their hiding in the woods sweep the enemy in full force and with unbelievable speed. Caesar

suggests the terrific emergency by the crowding periphrastics—eight of them—telling how he has to do everything at once. A scene of incredible confusion follows, the soldiers rushing into any group that happens to be nearest. Gone is the usual advantage of Roman organization! But not the value of Roman training: Caesar notes with pride that the day was saved largely because the troops knew undirected what they must do. Caesar too shows a clear-headedness and personal bravery as he rushes from one danger point to another that must stir the admiration of any schoolboy. The rushing swarms of the enemy and the demoralization of the Romans are pictured by Caesar in that amazing sentence of 137 words, the longest, I believe, that he ever wrote. In a series of six ablatives absolute the huddled confusion of the Romans is dramatized: all the centurions of one cohort killed, the standard bearer killed, the standard lost, nearly all the centurions of the other cohorts either killed or wounded; then follow seven infinitives as Caesar describes the scene before his eyes: the soldiers weakening, some deserting, the foe pressing relentlessly on, things at a crisis, and no reserves. This sentence is often analyzed as an example of the periodic type: to me it seems akin to onomatopoeia, with a movement as impetuous and a crowding swarm of details as overwhelming as was the onrush of the Nervii themselves.

Not only is this battle of supreme interest and significance, but it is also admirably adapted to the needs of the class. The Latin is easy, the action is simple and definite, there are no confusing politics or intrigues, only six Gallic names appear, and, perhaps best of all, Caesar had no time to make a speech in indirect discourse. The episode therefore is ideally suited to be read at the beginning of the *Caesar* year.

In Book Three I should read only chapters eight to sixteen, which recount in easy Latin the arresting tale of the battle with the Veneti. This episode is deservedly a favorite owing to the picturesque setting on the coast of Brittany, the repeated frustration of Caesar's efforts by rocks and tide, the dramatic combat of the Roman galleys with the ponderous ships of the Veneti, and the unexpected device by which those unwieldy hulks were rendered

helpless. A student who has passed directly to this event from the struggle with the Nervii will never think of Caesar's battles as monotonous and all alike.

The fourth book falls into two main episodes: the invasions of Germany and Britain. The first three chapters, describing the early communistic state of the Suebi, offer a stimulating parallel with the communism of today: the abolition of private property, the citizens forced to work at the tasks assigned, whether of war or of agriculture, and, a feature which the Russians have discarded, finding that it did not work well, complete freedom for the children from any duty or discipline. National self-sufficiency was practiced in the prohibition of foreign imports. The Suebi were as suspicious of their neighbors as is any European state of today; but their method of protecting their borders would not be feasible now, for on one side they had driven out their neighbors to a distance of six hundred miles.

Chapters four to fifteen, detailing Caesar's defeat of the Usipetes and Tencteri, can profitably be replaced, as previously noted, by the campaign against Ariovistus. That can very naturally be inserted here, and provides reading of far greater value.

And now we come to the famous bridge chapter, number seventeen. Shall we include it? My answer would be, "No, unless—." I say "no" because of the very great difficulties. It is famous among schoolboys as the very worst bugbear in Caesar; and many a student seems to remember nothing about the *Gallic War* except "that awful bridge chapter." A very undesirable sort of publicity for a Latin author! The difficulty is partly due to the vocabulary, technical words being used which occur nowhere else. Toil over words of that type is unproductive. But the carpentry and engineering are still harder to master. Without elaborate explanations, diagrams, and models, the erection of this bridge will be as incomprehensible to the students as it was to the Germans. And this brings me to my "unless." I should omit the bridge chapter unless I used it for a project, either for the class, or, better yet, for some clever pupil who was underworked. Building a bridge according to Caesar's blue print is, however, a time-consuming operation; and I am frankly a bit skeptical of the return value

except when boys who prefer to use their hands rather than their heads may be stimulated to a little action of the latter members as an adjunct of the former.

Chapters seventeen to thirty-six, describing the first trip to Britain, rank high in value. The action is easy for the pupils to follow and gives them plenty of interest and excitement. It is one of the famous enterprises of the *Gallic War*, and is a historical document of importance: the first description of the primitive Britons, and the first clash of Briton and Roman. As it is very generally included in the Caesar readings, it needs no further eulogy here.

The second expedition to Britain, described in Book Five, with history repeating itself in a disastrous storm and a hollow victory, offers nothing new except for chapters twelve to fourteen. These describe the geography and inhabitants of the island, and should be read to supplement the account of native customs in Book Four. Caesar's perverted geography of the British Isles will provide stimulating reading, also the primitive manner of life of the islanders, especially their terrifying habit of painting themselves dark blue.

The last half of Book Five, chapters twenty-three to fifty-two, covers two episodes which are of surpassing human interest, but which, since they lie outside the established first four books, are often neglected. Here we have two separate Roman armies each engaged in a desperate struggle, the one legion being annihilated, the other barely rescued by Caesar. At last the Gauls had produced in Ambiorix a leader who in ingenuity and resourcefulness was a match for the Romans. He devised the plan of cutting off the Roman detachments while separated in their winter quarters. In his first attack, upon Sabinus and Cotta, he failed in his attempt to storm the camp, hence resorted to strategy. Posing as one who at heart was a friend to the Romans, he warned them that their only hope of escape from the universal uprising of the Gauls lay in instant flight to the nearest Roman camp. The Romans were hoodwinked by these crafty arguments; they left the protection of their camp, and marched straight into the ambush that Ambiorix had planted. Caesar's moving description of the struggle and its tragic outcome is unforgettable.

Elated by this brilliant success, Ambiorix instantly started out for the camp of Cicero. His violent attack was resisted by the Romans with a courage and physical endurance that are almost unbelievable. Days of grueling combat were followed by nights of preparation for further fighting. Baffled in his assault, Ambiorix again called for a parley and tried by specious arguments to induce the Romans to leave their fortifications. But Cicero, more canny than Sabinus, refused to accept terms from a foe in arms. Thus the siege continued, the Gauls putting into practice all that they had learned of Roman tactics. Finally they hurled blazing darts upon the thatched huts of the camp. Even then, assailed by a vast number of missiles, and with fires raging everywhere, the legionaries stood firm. When finally Caesar learned of their plight and came to their rescue, he found less than one man in ten who was unwounded. The warm praise that he gave them for their fortitude shows why Caesar won from his troops such heroic devotion as was here manifested. This gallant defense of Cicero's camp against such terrific odds presents the Roman soldier at his very best. It is not surprising that the tale has been utilized in almost every historical novel that has been written about the period.

Book Six starts out with a situation that is utterly discouraging. Nearly all the Gallic tribes and some of the Germans are conspiring. It must have seemed to Caesar as if his work of five years had been obliterated. There is no brilliant success to be detailed in this book as in the first four, no dramatic hero tale as in Book Five. Hence Caesar shows the artist's instinct by turning entirely away from military affairs for eighteen chapters of Book Six, and giving us instead an account of the social, political, and religious customs of the Gauls and the Germans. The change from warfare to this picturesque description is always welcomed by students. For the historian this passage, the *locus classicus* for the life of these primitive peoples, is among the most valuable in the *Bellum Gallicum*. Here we have a picture of rivalries among the tribes and of kaleidoscopic changes in their alliances which offers an illuminating parallel to the shifting—and shifty—politics of today. The censorship of public news by the magistrates also has a modern note. There is a glimpse of the beginnings of feudalism in the description of the knights, each one followed by his devoted re-

tainers. Most of our scanty knowledge about the druids also comes from this passage. These august individuals are the priests, the judges, and the teachers. The statement that their freedom from military service lured many to prepare for that priesthood has a suggestion of pacifism that is surprising for that period. The druids' power of forbidding an offender to share in the sacrifices, with the social ostracism that follows, anticipates the Pope's power of excommunication. The druids are also the scholars and philosophers, and are held in such high honor as to suggest a natural inclination on the part of the Gauls toward scholarly pursuits. The type of education, with its emphasis on memory and its desire to exclude the masses from any share in knowledge, offers a marked contrast to our own educational ideals. Likewise the course of study, embracing natural science, philosophy, and religious speculation, is very limited as against our own elective system. But in their extension of the course of study over as much as twenty years, they demanded an even more arduous preparation for their profession than is required today. In their religious rites the Gauls were still barbarous enough to practice human sacrifice. Yet their veneration for religion was so strong as to curb even greed, thus causing the piles of spoils which had been consecrated to the gods to be left inviolate. The marriage customs, including the business-like handling of the dowry, the power of life and death which the father had over his family, the amusing taboo against his appearing in public with his youthful son, and the spectacular funerals, all furnish an absorbing and illuminating picture of a civilization very different from our own.

The description of the Germans amplifies the details of communism which we have already read in Book Four. The purposes of the modern communist are anticipated to a surprising degree: that the people may not grow greedy through the possession of private property, that the powerful may not oppress the weaker, that they may not become enervated through luxury, and that the passion for money may not create class strife. Contentment is to be secured through bringing all down to the same level.

These chapters are admirably suited to rouse the pupils to consider certain social and civic problems of today, for in a civili-

zation which in many ways is so remote from ours the essential features of customs and ethics stand out far more clearly than they do in a familiar setting.

In telling of the vast extent of the Hercynian Forest, Caesar describes some of the strange wild animals that infest it. Most startling of all is the elk that had no knee joints, which slept leaning against a tree, and which if it once fell would have to lie helpless, with its jointless legs standing out stiff and useless. Utterly lacking in inherent value as this tale is, the Noah's-Ark animals of course always captivate a youthful class. They speedily become a tradition in a school; and very early in a given year pupils will begin to ask "when they will come to the funny animals." I am sure that that amazing "nature fake" lures them to toil over many a hard passage.

Book Seven brings us to the grand climax. All the struggles that preceded now seem only preliminary to this final gigantic assemblage of united Romans against united Gauls. At last the Gauls had come to realize that Caesar's policy of *divide et impera* was one of their foremost causes of disaster. Consequently the ablest chieftains from many states began to plan for unified action. The brilliant young Vercingetorix was chosen commander-in-chief. He had a military technique and a forceful, even ruthless, leadership which succeeded for a time in binding the individualistic Gauls into a united force directed by a master mind. Thus Caesar was confronted by a peril immeasurably greater than any he had encountered before.

Emboldened by Caesar's absence in Italy, the Gauls planned to strike the various legions in their winter quarters before Caesar could come to the rescue. The plan was thwarted only by Caesar's amazing dash and resourcefulness. Having hurried from Italy, he was faced with the problem of reaching and uniting his scattered legions before the enemy could strike. He had with him a small force, chiefly of raw recruits, and must cover three hundred miles of territory infested by the bands of Vercingetorix. It was mid-January, and the Cevennes Mountains, which blocked his path, were covered with six feet of snow. Caesar, however, set his recruits to shoveling, and by terrific toil, *summo sudore*, they opened

a path through the drifts. Utterly unexpected, Caesar swept down upon the Arverni and sent his bands to spread terror far and wide. He himself with a handful of men, and not even telling his lieutenant where he was going, such was the need for speed and secrecy, dashed to the camp that was nearest. Then, hurrying on by day and night, he had his legions united before Vercingetorix even knew where he was. Such a story of courage, resourcefulness, and unremitting effort is tremendously worth while for the students.

Checkmated in his first undertaking, as described in chapters one to nine, Vercingetorix had recourse to a desperate measure. The Romans must be starved out, he said, hence every town and farm in the region must be destroyed. Within a single day over twenty towns were burned. But the people refused to set fire to Avaricum, a splendid city that was held to be invincible. Against his better judgment, Vercingetorix yielded (chap. 14 f). The siege that followed (chaps. 16-30) was the most prolonged and desperate of any that the Romans had undertaken. So effective was the starvation policy of the Gauls that Caesar, distressed for his soldiers, actually proposed to give up the siege if their sufferings were too great. But the legionaries as one man begged him not to yield. The spirit of the Romans was matched by that of the Gauls. Caesar tells with admiration of the heroic bravery and the many ingenious devices with which the Gauls held off their assailants for twenty-five days. When at last the city fell, the greatness of Vercingetorix was shown by the way in which he met the disaster. Actually in the process of reminding his followers that he had been right and they wrong regarding the defense of Avaricum, he won from them an increase of respect and support.

The next event of significance was Caesar's futile attempt to capture Gergovia (chaps. 36, 44-52). This was the one big undertaking in which Caesar failed. Evidently he had not reckoned with the strength of that mountain fortress. Finally, when he realized that his attempt was hopeless, he planned by a successful skirmish to be able to retire with credit. But even this modest hope was thwarted. The soldiers, over-eager at seeing the enemy flee, pressed into the town contrary to orders, and nearly brought destruction

upon the whole army. Under this humiliation of his first failure Caesar must have wondered if in like fashion all his work in Gaul was to go for naught. Never did his future look so black. He was actually obliged to ask the Germans for cavalry, a confession of weakness that must have been galling.

Vercingetorix chose Alesia as the place for his final stand. This town seemed impregnable, situated on a precipitous hill with two sides protected by streams. Both armies knew that around that little hill the destinies of Gaul were to be settled. Chapters sixty-three to eighty-nine give us a scene that dwarfs all others, and a heroic resolve on each side that makes Gaul and Roman alike seem unconquerable. The Romans, though greatly outnumbered, essayed with about fifty thousand men to surround completely the fortress of Alesia, in which were eighty thousand Gauls. That in itself seems a dubious undertaking. But presently from all parts of Gaul came added forces totaling two hundred and fifty thousand men, who, in turn, completely encircled the lines of the Romans. This situation of Caesar's legions, spread out in a vast circle with the enemy both inside and outside, is almost unparalleled in military history. For this crisis Caesar devised a series of barriers which should both shut off Alesia from all contact with the outside and also protect the Romans from attack. All the way around the city, a distance of about nine miles, siege works were extended, strengthened by three camps, twenty-three redoubts, and about four hundred wooden towers. These vast works were only the beginning. To protect himself from attack on the outside, Caesar constructed a second line of fortifications, a replica of the first. Thus he had an outer concentric circle of twelve miles. Those poor ditch diggers! And still Caesar was not content. He sought to strengthen still further a plain which was his most vulnerable point. Having dug three tremendous trenches, one on the margin of the plain and two in front of the rampart, Caesar proceeded to turn the space between into a veritable No Man's Land, with concealed pits, iron barbs, sharpened stakes, and bristling branches of trees, the latter making a dense thicket about twenty-five wide. These defenses were the lineal ancestors of our barbed wire entanglements, but far more laborious to construct. When the ardu-

ous task had been completed on the side toward the town, Caesar said, "Now make more just like them all over the plain on the outside." Could there possibly be a better example that *Labor omnia vincit?*

Meantime what was going on in Alesia? Grievously worsted in his first sally from the town, Vercingetorix decided to wait until his friends from the outside had come to his aid. But while that great host was mustering, the limited supply of food was exhausted. A council of the chiefs was called, at which a startling proposal was made by one Critognatus. Caesar dramatically gives the words in direct form: "Let us do as our forefathers did, who, under a like stress, sustained life upon the bodies of those who were too old to fight, and thus they escaped surrender." Could anything bring home more vividly the strength of their purpose to resist? The barbaric plan was untried only because of the timely arrival of the other Gauls.

In the final battle we must wonder, on the one side, that the Gauls could have made any headway against the incredible siege works and the unceasing resistance of the Romans; on the other hand, that the Romans, outnumbered six to one, and spread out in a long thin line which in the outer and inner circles totaled twenty-one miles, could have withstood the tremendous onrush of those three hundred and thirty thousand Gauls assailing at once every point on the outside and the inside. Pacifistic age though this is, one's blood must stir at the sheer human grandeur of the resistance and the attack.

The end had all the gripping dignity of a tragic drama. When the disciplined steadiness of the Romans had at length prevailed, and Vercingetorix realized that all was over, he then showed his true measure as a hero. He gave himself up to his countrymen that they might win favor with Caesar by surrendering him alive. The meeting of victor and vanquished as described by Plutarch is unforgettable:

Vercingetorix went out of the gates excellently well armed, and his horse furnished with rich caparison accordingly, and rode round about Caesar, who sat in his chair of state. Then alighting from his horse, he took off his

caparison and furniture, and unarmed himself, and laid all on the ground, and went and sat down at Caesar's feet, and said never a word.⁴

Such is the outcome of the colossal struggle, for the sake of which we have sacrificed many scenes in the earlier books.

In brief retrospect, what do these selected passages give to a Caesar class? They total 163 chapters, seven more than the number in the first four books. Since most teachers will wish to substitute easier reading than Caesar during the first part of the year, these selections still leave room for personal choice. Their panorama includes two fights in the open; a panic of the Roman soldiers; a very unusual naval battle; the first voyage of a Roman army to Britain; two perilous defenses of Roman camps, one culminating in disaster, the other in success; a survey of the customs of Britons, Gauls, and Germans; two attempts by the Romans to capture powerful fortresses, the first ending in victory, the second in failure; and at Alesia the magnificent dénouement of the seven years of struggle. It is a tale pulsing with human life and action, moving irresistibly on through toil, reverse, and triumph to the final outcome. A student ought not to find it too hard, and I cannot believe that he would fail to know what it was all about.

SYNOPSIS OF SELECTIONS FROM THE BELLUM GALICUM

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|-----------|--|
| Book I, | chap. 1. The Land of Gaul
chaps. 31-33, 39-41, 50-53. Campaign against Ariovistus |
| Book II, | chaps. 15-28. Battle with the Nervii |
| Book III, | chaps. 8-15. Battle with the Veneti |
| Book IV, | chaps. 1-3. Customs of the Suebi
chaps. 20-36. First Expedition to Britain |
| Book V, | chaps. 12-14. Customs of the Britons
chaps. 26-37. Attack upon the Camp of Sabinus and Cotta
chaps. 38-52. Attack upon the Camp of Cicero |
| Book VI, | chaps. 11-28. Customs of the Gauls and Germans |
| Book VII, | chaps. 1-9, 14 f. Union of Gaul under Vercingetorix
chaps. 16-30. Siege of Avaricum
chaps. 36, 44-52. Siege of Gergovia
chaps. 63-89. Siege of Alesia |

⁴ North's Plutarch, *Life of Caesar*, ch. 26.

MATTHEW ARNOLD, CLASSICIST

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"Matthew Arnold, Classicist," might suggest a number of possible treatments. We might think of him as a poet imbued with the principles of classical poetry; we might collect and discuss his references to the literature and life of antiquity; we might revel in his admirable defense of an education based on the humanities in his reply to Huxley's *Science and Culture*; and we might well reconsider his lectures dealing with the translation of Homer. With none of these is this paper concerned. The approach is much more prosaic, perhaps less worthy, but no less pertinent than the others mentioned. Arnold was interested, deeply, in the teaching of the ancient languages, although he actually engaged in this work for only a brief period. His objectives—familiar term—were very definite in his mind and they are brought to light in certain of his works that considerably postdate his teaching activity. In a recent issue of the *Classical Weekly*¹ Professor W. L. Carr undertakes to suggest that the primary immediate objective of reading Latin may best be attained by the simple method of doing just that and that the time spent on composition is unnecessarily disproportionate, helpful chiefly toward proficiency in composition and nothing else. The remaining pages of this issue of the *Classical Weekly* are devoted to two unfavorable criticisms of his point of view and in the subsequent issue² two additional opponents take up the cudgels. Mention is made of this debate because it is recent and convenient. We believe that Professor Carr might have found in Matthew Arnold a kindred spirit and an authority of no insignificant weight.

Arnold's attitude toward the teaching of the classics was in a

¹ March 4, 1935, 129-133. ² March 11, 1935, 137-142.

sense inherited. His father, Thomas Arnold, devoted his entire life to teaching the ancient languages and literature with an influence on English education that is corollary rather than secondary to the influence of his son. The elder Arnold was not a revolutionist but we are told that "he rebelled strongly against the wooden, mechanical, and pedantic fashion in which those languages were often taught, as if the attainment of proficiency in them were an end in itself and not the means to some higher end."³ Thomas Arnold believed that writers like Aristotle, Plato, Thucydides, Cicero, and Tacitus were inaccurately called "ancient," that their conclusions were just as vital to his own day as to the period in which they were written. It was his aim, then, to use the historical, political, and philosophical values of the ancient authors in the educational scheme of his own times. The "construing," as it was called, of English into Greek and Latin verses was particularly objectionable to him. This type of composition was inflicted upon students of his day with even more vigor than is prose composition today. However, Thomas Arnold conformed to, and tried to make the best of, the method in general practice.

There are surely few men outside the profession of teaching the classics who have been so firmly convinced as Matthew Arnold that in the classics are all the essentials of a liberal education. His position as a school inspector and his skill as an essayist tended to give his opinions an authority and acceptance that those from within the profession may never hope to attain. For these same reasons his views on the teaching objectives of the classics are worthy of consideration. Like his father he felt that through the humanities a man could know himself and his own world, and like his father he was opposed to the conventional methods of approach to the study of the humanities. A few quotations from his works will serve as excellent illustrations of his pedagogical theory. In *The Study of Poetry*⁴ we find the following:

It may be said that the more we know about a classic the better we shall enjoy him; and, if we lived as long as Methuselah and had all of us heads of

³ Cf. Sir Joshua Fitch: *Thomas and Matthew Arnold*: New York (1897), 30.

⁴ *Selections from the Prose Works of Matthew Arnold*, ed. W. S. Johnson: New York (1913), 60 f.

perfect clearness and wills of perfect steadfastness, this might be true in fact as it is plausible in theory. But the case here is much the same as the case with the Greek and Latin studies of our schoolboys. The elaborate philological groundwork which we require them to lay is in theory an admirable preparation for appreciating the Greek and Latin authors worthily. The more thoroughly we lay the groundwork, the better we shall be able, it may be said, to enjoy the authors. True, if time were not so short, and schoolboys' wits not so soon tired and their power of attention exhausted; only, as it is, the elaborate philological preparation goes on, but the authors are little known and less enjoyed.

It is perhaps a mystery why comments in similar vein should be found in a work by Arnold of which the title and contents have little connection with this line of thought. But found they are and in considerable frequency in his *Higher Schools and Universities in Germany*.⁵ It would seem another indication of his keen interest in this phase of the study of languages. In speaking of the necessity for a re-creation of school instruction in letters and in the ancient humanities he says:⁶

The prolonged philological discipline, which in our present schools guards the access to *Alterthumswissenschaft*, brings to mind the philosophy of Albertus Magnus, the mere introduction to which—the logic—was by itself enough to absorb all a student's time of study.

Arnold was willing to admit that a student like Wolf could combine the philological discipline with the matter to which it was ancillary. But he continues:

Such students are rare; and nine out of ten, especially in England, where so much time is given to Greek and Latin composition, never get through the philological vestibule at all, never arrive at *Alterthumswissenschaft*, which is a knowledge of the spirit and power of Greek and Roman antiquity learned from its original works.

But many people have even convinced themselves that the preliminary philological discipline is so extremely valuable as to be an end in itself. . . . No preliminary discipline is to be pressed at the risk of keeping minds from getting at the main matter, a knowledge of themselves and the world. Some minds have . . . a special aptitude for philology, or for pure mathematics—but for one of these there will be ten whose natural access to vital knowledge is through literature, philosophy, history, or some one or more of the natural sciences.⁷

⁵ London (1874).

⁶ *Op. cit.*, 177 f.

⁷ *Op. cit.*, 178–180.

Arnold believed Latin the best of all grammars for the promotion of habits of exactness, but he considered a Latin grammar of thirty pages sufficient and that the number of those who should be given the chance to become intimately acquainted with Latin and Greek as literature was infinitely greater than those whose aptitudes were for composition and scholarship.

Arnold was not entirely opposed to prose composition but thought it should be limited to exercises auxiliary to the sound learning of any language. He had no use for careless and slipshod methods but was convinced that by less emphasis on composition and more on literature the grammatical forms could be learned more exactly and permanently than by ambitious grammatical studies.

In the field of the modern languages, in which the leaders, rightly or wrongly, have followed so closely after the methods and investigations of teachers in the classics, Arnold anticipated the recommendations of the Coleman report and the clear-cut theories of Michael West. To Arnold the aim of teaching a student to speak a modern language was commercial and not liberal—showy and often useful, but to be regarded as a secondary and subordinate aim. He sums it up in the statement, "It is as literature, and as opening fresh roads into knowledge, that the modern foreign languages, like the ancient, are truly school business."⁸

Arnold's theories on language teaching are still the subject of controversy. Perhaps they always will be; but the opinions of one whose educational theories for the most part have long since been accepted as sound in practice as well as theory should receive thoughtful consideration, especially since they come from such a staunch and expert defender of the humanities as the basis of true education. An inspection of Arnold's essays and certain other works will incline one to accept without reservation the statement that "the argument for classical learning was never more admirably presented than by Matthew Arnold, himself intellectually a product of the classical spirit."⁹

⁸ *Higher Schools and Universities in Germany*, 191.

⁹ William Harbutt Dawson, *Matthew Arnold*: New York and London (1904), 130.

Arnold was neither the first nor the last to suggest that profound grammatical studies are not a reasonable preparation for the reading knowledge of a foreign language. St. Augustine must have had feelings of a similar kind when he said:

Why do I hate Greek and this harping on such things? For Homer himself . . . was a bitter pill to me as a boy. I believe that Vergil is no less so to Grecian children when they are compelled to learn him. For the difficulty of learning a foreign language was like sprinkling all the pleasures of the fabulous narrations with gall. I didn't understand a word of it, yet they urged me to learn it with all sorts of terrors and punishments.¹⁰

In more recent years and especially since the publication of the *Classical Investigation* the reading objective seems to have received almost unanimous acceptance, but not so the method of approach. Criticisms of the conventional method have been expressed not only by language teachers but by others as well. In the *CLASSICAL JOURNAL*¹¹ Professor Carr has stated:

A good many years of experience as a student and teacher of Latin have only strengthened in me a belief that language, even the Latin language, consists much more largely of words than it does of grammatical forms or syntactical principles or any other of those elements which we are accustomed to single out for purposes of study or instruction.

Michael West reaches almost the identical conclusions in the field of the modern languages where the reading objective is generally regarded even more basic than in the ancient languages. West feels that grammar is a medicine, not a form of diet, and should be occasional, intermittent. "But," he says, "so systematic are the schoolmasters that they make the child swallow the whole pharmacopoeia of grammar—whether as a preventive or a panacea, I have never been able to discover."¹² From without the teaching guild we occasionally meet with protests such as these:

There was indeed a glory in Greece and a grandeur in Rome. But this glory and this grandeur have been hidden under a dead weight of Greek and Latin grammar. If we may suppose that some day a method will be found of imparting an agility in the use of these languages, with at the same time a *just*

¹⁰ *Confessions*, "Loeb Classical Library," I, 14.

¹¹ XXIX (February, 1934), 323.

¹² *Language in Education*, London (1929), 136.

and unsentimental appreciation of the cultures they represent, there will be rejoicing among a certain small class of university students.¹³

Remarks such as the foregoing, while worthy of careful consideration, might perhaps in some quarters be considered as yielding at a time when all yielding is treason. But with Matthew and Thomas Arnold such a criticism would not apply. They lived and taught in a period when the classics were still unchallenged, or only feebly challenged, as the foundation of the educational system. The younger Arnold did indeed live to see the threatened eclipse of the humanities he regarded so highly, but there is no trace of retreat, nothing of the defeatist, in his attitude. Rather it was an objective, self-critical stand at a time when such a stand scarcely seemed necessary.

¹³ "Small Latin, Less Greek," *The Nation*, CXXXII (1931), 574.

Notes

[All contributions in the form of notes for this department should be sent directly to Roy C. Flickinger, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Ia.]

THE FACTUAL BASIS FOR REPRESENTING INDOOR SCENES *AL FRESCO* IN ROMAN COMEDY

Everyone knows that in Plautus and Terence scenes are represented in the open air and before the house which residents in more northern climes would expect to belong indoors. This situation is usually explained as due to the physical limitations of the ancient theaters and justified on the basis of the way people live and used to live in a warm climate, especially at Naples.¹ It is sometimes said that this justification is overworked, and some have even declared that they have visited Naples and seen nothing like the scenes which are common in Roman comedy. The contradiction may be evaded by observing that these conditions have been changed since the Fascist regime came into power in Italy; cf. Geoffrey and Kit Bret Harte, *Island in the Sun* (Boston, Little, Brown and Co., 1937), 267f.:²

However, in its zeal for cleansing, the new regime has done away with many picturesque old customs. One of the most familiar of these was the habit of turning the street into a living-room by bringing out from one's house table and chairs, of cooking and eating one's meals there, exchanging visits with neighbours similarly established, and generally spending pleasant hours of leisure *al fresco*. The fact that indoor living conditions among the poor were appalling made this expansion into the street even more desirable. The methods employed by the Fascists in doing away with this obstruction to traffic had the drastic simplicity characteristic of all their measures. Street monopoly was strictly forbidden, and families were warned. A first offence brought a fine; the second brought a police van which removed and confiscated what-

¹ Cf. Flickinger, *The Greek Theater and Its Drama*⁴: Chicago, University of Chicago Press (1936), 237-39.

² Quoted with the permission of the publisher.

ever furniture had been brought out of doors. It worked well, for nowhere in Naples to-day can one see these street parties that lent so much colour to the life of the old city.

Mr. Harte is well qualified to testify in such a matter since he states (p. 266) that he spent the winter in Naples with his parents when he was ten years of age and revisited the city many times in the following twenty-five years. The book deals principally with the island of Ischia in the Bay of Naples, where Mr. and Mrs. Harte spent several months on their honeymoon.

They refer (pp. 290 f.) also to another modern custom for which some one may be able to cite parallels from ancient literature:

In Italy, kid takes the place of lamb on the menu. Roast kid is good; *capretto di latte*, "suckling kid," is supposed to be especially delicate, though there never is much to it. In the old days it was always thought that the best way to kill them was to skin them alive. It was unbelievably brutal. The kid was strung up in the butcher's shop and the butcher, after slitting the skin in various places, pulled it off the miserable animal. One doesn't like to believe it of such nice people, but they say that the skinning of a kid was always the signal for a crowd to gather; the show was especially exciting for children.

About ten years ago the new Fascist regime made a law putting an end to the practice. The old butchers rebelled against this law; they thought the meat inferior when the slaughtering had been painless, and, though there were no more public shows, kids were still skinned alive in back rooms and dark corners. The butchers were running no great risks here; Ischia is very far from the "continent," farther in feeling than in actual distance. . . .

But it happened that the new head of the local Fascist Party, a certain colonel, was a lover of animals, and was determined to enforce the new law. One day he heard a piteous crying coming from the open front of a butcher's shop. He was a man of fiery temper, and he was never so easily roused as by the sight of an animal in pain. He ran through the butcher's empty shop and in a back room found the man with his knife in his hand. On a hook was hung a little kid. The butcher had already made the first incisions and was beginning to strip off the fluffy hide.

In one bound the colonel was on him, tore the knife from his hand and put an end to the animal's life. Then he turned on the frightened butcher and, brandishing the knife in his hand, told him what he thought of him.

"How would you like to be skinned alive, eh?" The butcher quaked; the knife was very near; the colonel was roaring furiously. "How do you start? Here at the wrist, eh?" The butcher's eyes were closed; he was only waiting for the end. "Madonna, O Madonna," he prayed rapidly. His only hope was that he would be finished off as quickly as the kid and not be skinned alive.

The colonel had given the man such a scare, threatening him with the law if he was caught again, that no more kids were skinned alive on the island. That, anyway, is the story they tell.

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*TESTAMENTUM IN PROCINCTU IN A
NEW YORK COURT*

A special form of will, said to have been in use and recognized as valid in early Roman times but mentioned by Cicero (*De Natura Deorum* II, 3, 9) as obsolete in his day, was the *testamentum in procinctu*, representing, evidently, an exception to the strict Roman civil code of the time.¹ By this legal privilege, we are told,² soldiers in line of battle (*in procinctu*) used to make their wills with no greater formality than that involved in addressing an oral declaration to several of their comrades acting as witnesses.

A judge of the New York Court of Appeals may or may not have been aware that he was endorsing this ancient informal device in a recent case that came under his jurisdiction. The incident is reported on page 1 of the New York *Herald-Tribune* for January 19, 1939, in part, as follows:

Albany, Jan. 18 (By a Staff Correspondent).—An oral will made by a soldier during the World War, a remark to two companions, "If anything happens to me, my sister gets my property," should be properly admitted to probate, the Court of Appeals held yesterday. It ruled also that a letter written by the same soldier to his sister and bequeathing his property to her was not valid because it had not been subscribed to by two witnesses.

The case involved the estate of Walter Zaic, of Brooklyn, who died in 1934. In a letter written to his sister, Mrs. Julia Taylor, he had said: "This is my will in which I bequeath to you all my property."

Although both the letter and the statement made Mrs. Taylor the beneficiary, the surrogate admitted the letter to probate and refused to admit the

¹ Cf. Aulus Gellius xv, 27, 3; Gaius, *Institutiones* II, 101; Ulpian, *Regulae* 20, 2; T. Mommsen, *Römisches Staatsrecht*: Leipzig, Hirzel (1887), III, 307 f.; and R. Solm, *The Institutes*³, translated by J. C. Ledlie: New York, Oxford University Press (1907), 542.

² Cf. Plutarch, *Coriolanus* ix, 3; Sabidius apud *Scholia Veronensia in Aen.* x, 241 (Thilo and Hagen, III, 2, 446); and Velleius Paterculus II, 5; also the note in J. B. Mayor's edition of Cicero's *De Natura Deorum*: Cambridge (1883), II, 82 f.

testimony of Zaic's two war-time comrades. Both the oral will and the letter were then challenged by other relatives of Zaic.

Justice Irving G. Hubbs ruled in his opinion that "the testimony of the two witnesses was of an oral will," and ordered the will returned to Kings County Surrogate's Court for probate.

J. S. CARBERRY

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THE HORSE AND BUGGY DOCTOR TESTIFIES FOR THE CLASSICS

Dr. Arthur E. Hertzler, the author of *The Horse and Buggy Doctor*, in addition to having written one of the current "best sellers" of non-fiction, has had a varied medical experience as a country doctor, as a consulting physician and surgeon, as a medical-school instructor, as a writer of some thirty volumes on various phases of medicine, and as the head of the Hertzler Clinic at Halstead, Kansas. In these utilitarian days Dr. Hertzler's testimony to the value of Latin and Greek is all the more interesting since it is evident to anyone reading *The Horse and Buggy Doctor* that the doctor is an intensely practical man. Furthermore he admits that "languages have always been an impossible field" for him. Today the Doctors of Education and particularly the specialists in vocational guidance would probably have guided him away from languages because of the difficulty he experienced. If we are to take his humorously put remarks seriously, we infer that he did not remember his Greek as a language and that his Latin syntax was not at all clear to him; yet he has found these two languages highly *practical*. Here is what he has to say:

All I remember about Greek is that you learn one verb, all the rest are irregular, that Darius had three huge sons and that buzzard meat tastes like venison, only sweeter. Nevertheless were I to begin the study of medicine again I should choose the same courses in Latin and Greek as a preliminary. For though, like Shakespeare, I had small Latin and less Greek, they made medical terminology more interesting and intelligible, and when I began the study of medicine I recognized the derivation of new words as I came across them in my reading. During examinations and recitations if one was a bit shy on knowledge one could start by giving the derivation of the word while he collected his wits, if any. This also impressed the professor, particularly if

that worthy lacked such knowledge himself. If one knows the structure of a word he can make a pretty good stall at making a recitation, good say for a five. I tried this bluff on an instructor one day, who unbeknown to me had once been a professor of Greek. But in general it worked very well. I would not imply that a resort to this means was often necessary in my case, but there was a satisfaction in possessing the knowledge, like a spare dollar in one's pocket. Aside from its practical value, I am sure this slight knowledge of the basic languages has made reading of medicine more pleasurable throughout life.

Languages have always been an impossible field for me. The fortieth chapter of Caesar is said to have a principal verb. Maybe so, but I never succeeded in locating it. I built sextants whereby I measured the height of a church steeple from the sidewalk two blocks away, and the width of the river from a bank. This was accepted in lieu of the elusive verb.¹

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IMPROBUS ANSER, VERGIL, GEORGICS I, 118-121

Nec tamen, haec cum sint hominumque bouisque labores
versando terram experti, nihil improbus anser
Strymoniaeque grues et amaris intiba fibris
Officiunt aut umbra nocet.

During this spring, March 1939, the *improbus anser* has earned the epithet that Vergil gave him. In this region flocks of wild geese on their way northward have settled on certain fields of winter wheat to feed. Some of these fields are said to have been stripped, blade and root, by the geese. In other cases the damage is not so great, and the fields have suffered no more than when pastured by stock in the winter, a procedure recommended by Vergil in *Georgics I*, 110 f. and still followed in mild winters.

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¹ A. E. Hertzler, *The Horse and Buggy Doctor*: New York, Harper and Brothers (1938), 27 f. (quoted by permission of the publishers).

REMIGIO ALARUM

In the CLASSICAL JOURNAL XXXIV (1939), 234-237¹ Professor Eugene S. McCartney has discussed the above metaphor from Vergil, *Aeneid* I, 300 f.² He has given many parallels for wings as oars. He has also cited instances of flying regarded as rowing from Aeschylus, *Agamemnon* 52 πτερύγων ἐρεμοῖσιν ἐρεσσόμενοι,³ Milton's *Paradise Lost* VII, 438 f., Lowell's "My Garden Acquaintance," and Robert Bridges' "Eros and Psyche, September 6." The idea of oarage in the air occurs in Ovid⁴ and often to-day we speak of aerial navigation of an airship and of the wings of an aeroplane. To the parallels cited by McCartney may be added Abraham Cowley (1618-67), who in his *Pindarique Odes*, "The Muse" 2, 2 (influenced by Pindar's sixth Olympian ode) says:

Where Bird with painted Oars did nere
Row through the trackless Ocean of the Air.

DAVID M. ROBINSON

THE JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY

¹ Professor McCartney has also discussed the subject in *Classical Weekly* XIII (1920), 219 to which no reference is given.

² Cf. also VI, 19 and Lucretius VI, 743, *remigi . . . pennarum*.

³ Cf. Euripides, *Iph.* T. 289 and Lucian, *Tim.* 40.

⁴ Cf. *Met.* V, 558 and VIII, 227 f.

Book Reviews

[Review copies of classical books should be sent to the Editorial Office of the JOURNAL at Washington University, St. Louis, Mo. Such works will always be listed in the department of Recent Books, and those which seem most important to the readers of the JOURNAL will also be reviewed in this department. The editor-in-chief reserves the right of appointing reviewers.]

HARDIE, W. F. R., *A Study in Plato*: New York, Oxford University Press (1936). Pp. 171.

This is a book about Plato that would have delighted Aristotle. It is addressed, as indeed were the works of that philosopher, to those who are well versed in Platonic studies; neither in style nor matter does it make any concession to a more general reader, or make any effort to attract him. It is a study of the origin and validity, in terms of modern philosophy, of the theory of Forms, and restricts itself to the epistemological and the metaphysical aspects of the theory. In view of the book's austerity it is, however, surprising that references to other works, especially those of foreign scholars, are so few. One would have expected, at various points, references to Natorp, Ritter, Wilamowitz, Dies, and Robin —to mention no others, and a consideration of their point of view.

The Forms are approached from the epistemological angle, and great emphasis is laid on the "argument from the sciences," i.e., that there must be permanently real objects of knowledge and that these cannot be sensibles. This argument is important, but the student will do well to remember the simpler meanings of *εἶδος* and to compare the account of the theory's origin given by Wilamowitz (*Platon* I, 364 ff.) and others. He will then be less inclined to attach quite so much importance, in the development of the theory, to the explanations of sense-perception given in the *Theaetetus*. The discussion of them might have been made more complete by reference to the parallel passages of the *Timaeus*, and

readers not very familiar with this obscure subject should have been referred to the fuller discussions of Beare in his *Greek Theories of Elementary Cognition* (Oxford [1906]). The author's bias in favor of the complete "separateness" of the Forms leads him to attach too much importance to the supposed immanence of the "common factors" (*kouká*) of the *Theaetetus*. For these are quite obviously Ideas. The whole purpose of the dialogue is to show that knowledge is impossible on relativist premises. Plato is arguing from his opponents' premises, which is the only reason for the apparent, but only apparent, absence of the Forms.

The discussion of Opinion—I prefer to call it Belief—is on firmer ground. Plato's attempt to make the difference between Opinion and Knowledge one of object rather than process, especially in the *Republic*, is clearly and vigorously exposed; the essential "untruth" of true opinion is well brought out, as is the essential connection between mathematics and the Forms. Few would deny that Plato was guilty of the mathematician's "excessive optimism in regard to the scope of *a priori* knowledge." Nor have I any doubt that the author is right in placing the "mathematica" in the third section of the Line; indeed such opinions to the contrary as he discusses do not seem to deserve the space given to them.

Most interesting are the chapters on the *Parmenides*; they are thoroughly relevant, illuminating, and persuasive throughout. I am not indeed convinced that the Neo-Platonic transcendent One, beyond all predicates, should be looked for here, even less that it should then be identified with the Good of the *Republic* as "beyond Being." Nor am I so averse to leaving an ultimate pluralism in Plato, or inclined to concede that the ultimate Good and God are the supreme reality. This, however, is not the place to enter into a lengthy controversy, and my reasons for keeping gods and Ideas separate I have given elsewhere (*Plato's Thought*, Methuen [1935], especially pp. 1-50, 150-179). But Mr. Hardie's arguments on these points will repay study; his formulation of the opposing view at the end shows that he possesses the Platonic faculty of seeing the other side.

The book is not easy reading. To recommend it to a wide public

would be vain pretence. But those to whom it is addressed will find it suggestive and worth digesting. They will no doubt be on their guard against the occasional confusion which results from blaming Plato for not taking modern philosophies into account.

G. M. A. GRUBE

TRINITY COLLEGE, TORONTO

ERIK, WIKÉN, *Die Kunde der Hellenen von dem Lande und den Völkern der Apenninenhalbinsel bis 300 v. Chr.*: Lund, Gleerupska Universitetsbokhandeln (1937). Pp. vii+210.

Doctor Wikén had the good fortune to sit at the feet of such men as Martin Nilsson and Axel Boëthius, the latter of whom inspired the initial phases of this study.

The title indicates the character and scope of this monograph. There are but two chapters, or parts: I. *Das primitive Weltbild der Vorhellenen und der Hellenen* (1-19); II. *Die Kunde der Vorhellenen und der Hellenen von der Apenninenhalbinsel und ihren Inseln* (20-192). Part two, however, has four subdivisions, tracing man's knowledge of the west in the following periods: (a) during Minoan-Mycenean times; (b) during the 11th and 10th centuries B.C.; (c) from 900-630 B.C.; (d) from 630-300 B.C. There are further subdivisions of (c) and (d). A list of abbreviations covers pages 193-195. A pretty full Index is found on pages 196-210. An unnumbered page follows, containing the *Inhaltsverzeichnis*. Doubtless most American readers would prefer to see this page placed at the beginning of the volume.

This monograph is a veritable mine of information; its source material comes from language, literature, coins, and every type of archaeological discovery. The author is well acquainted not only with the ancient authorities but also with the periodical and monographic literature of a later day. He rightly regards the ancient literatures as his most reliable sources and relegates archaeological, linguistic, and numismatic evidence to a position of secondary importance. While the value of this study lies primarily in the objective presentation of all the available material bearing on the problem, subjective remarks are not altogether absent.

With some of the latter certain readers might take issue, e.g. with the assertion that the *Odyssey* seems to reflect the experiences of the commercial voyages subsequent to the 9th century B.C. (p. 22). In general, the author shows remarkable restraint, simply presenting his evidence and allowing it to speak for itself. When the occasion demands and his material permits, he courageously disagrees even with such outstanding scholars as Wilamowitz (p. 42) and Conway and Whatmough (p. 46). While Wikén is courageous, he is never foolhardy; when his evidence appears to be unreliable or inadequate, he makes no attempt to conceal an absence of proof by a cloud of language. It is refreshing from time to time to see the frank admission "*das wissen wir nicht*" (pp. 44, 76).

The effort to achieve brevity and to crowd as much as possible into each sentence sometimes leads to awkwardness of expression. *Eine Ende* (p. 167) is doubtless a typographical error. In the same category belongs the omission of arabic 2 at the head of that footnote on page 134. It is a deplorable fact that in a study where accuracy and precision are all-important factors the author should use *ff.* and refrain from giving the inclusive line. The employment within sentences of long parenthetical statements of the same type of print as the text makes reading an exasperating task. These minor objections, however, do not detract greatly from an otherwise useful and learned study.

ALFRED P. DORJAHN

NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY

BUSH, DOUGLAS, *Mythology and the Romantic Tradition in English Poetry*, "Harvard Studies in English," Vol. xviii: Cambridge, Harvard University Press (1937). Pp. xvi+647. \$5.00.

This book is a brilliant sequel to the author's *Mythology and the Renaissance Tradition in English Poetry* (Minnesota Press, 1932). In it Professor Bush, after a chapter on the eighteenth century, proceeds in chronological order to discuss fully the major figures in English literature of the nineteenth century. Minor writers are noticed in such chapters as "Early Victorian Minor Poets," and "Minor Poets, Mid-Victorian and Later." Almost one hundred

pages are devoted to English and American poems of the twentieth century, including the year 1935. An Appendix of fifty-six pages, which gives a Register of the mythological poems published in England and the United States from 1681 to 1936; a useful Bibliography of thirty-six pages, and an Index complete the volume.

What the author has given us is not a catalogue of Greek mythology in English poetry but a critical history of English literature, which achieves surprising unity and completeness by constant reference to ancient mythology. Ruthlessly relegating his copious scholarship to the footnotes and Bibliography, Professor Bush has contrived to make the text remarkably clear and entertaining. A nice use of epigram not only enlivens the narrative but neatly summarizes individuals and epochs. For example, "All the ladies and gentlemen of New England in the nineteenth century possessed high ideals and a copy of Bulfinch" (482). Contemporary poetry is explained in large part by the "modern poet's conscientious devotion to glands and girders" (534).

Professor Bush's judgment concerning the use of mythology is stated as follows: "Other things being equal, the mythological poems which are alive are those in which a myth is invested with a modern significance, whether personal or social and . . . the dead ones are plaster reproductions of the antique" (529). This thesis is constantly illustrated throughout the book.

These two volumes should appeal to all who are interested in the classics or in English literature; they will certainly be invaluable for the student and teacher of ancient mythology. The recent volume in particular is unusual for its excellence of material and of style.

EDWARD F. D'ARMS

UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO

ATHENAEUS, *The Deipnosophists*, with an English Translation by Charles Burton Gulick. Vol. vi. "The Loeb Classical Library." London, William Heinemann; Cambridge, Massachusetts, Harvard University Press (1937). Pp. xi+548. 10s. \$2.50.

The sixth volume of Athenaeus maintains the high standard of

its predecessors. There is the same lightness of touch, the same sure grasp of multitudinous detail which we have admired in the previous installments of this translation. This volume contains two books. Book XIII, "Concerning Women"—the only book of Atheneaeus which is dignified with a special title in the manuscripts—unfolds an amazing array of anecdotes, always piquant and racy, and not infrequently scabrous. Here the translator has managed a difficult task with delicacy and judgment. Book XIV (to 653B) deals with a variety of subjects: buffoons, music, dancing, musical instruments, desserts, cakes, and fruits.

Errors and misprints are rare. On p. 413 a note states that an acephalous dactylic hexameter begins with — — for — — or — — —. It should read — — for — — or — — — for — — —, as the second example in the text shows: ἐπίτονος τετάνυστο. And on p. 414 there is printed the "slack" verse αἴψα δ' ἄρ' Αἰνεῖν φίλων νιδνῷ Ἀγχισταο with a note that the cretic (νιδνῷ Ἀγχ-, — — —) stands where a dactyl or a spondee is required. It is, of course, the trochee (νιδνῷ — —) which takes the place of the dactyl or spondee.

But these are minutiae. It is an admirable volume, which this reviewer, at least, read with both pleasure and profit.

HARRY M. HUBBELL

YALE UNIVERSITY

JAEGER, WERNER, *Demosthenes, The Origin and Growth of His Policy*, "The Sather Classical Lectures," Vol. XIII: Berkeley, University of California Press (1938). Pp. x+273. \$2.50.

It is indeed refreshing to find a study of Demosthenes and his policy which departs from the prevailing view of the nineteenth century and more modern times. Though Professor Jaeger has no patience with those who regard Demosthenes as a mere impediment to the law of development from the Greek polis to Hellenism, he states that Demosthenes can never again be considered the pivotal figure of the fourth century. By a thorough reinterpretation of Demosthenes' speeches both in the context of the whole intellectual and emotional history of the Greek state from the end of the Peloponnesian War onward and in the light of the actualities

of the outward situation, Professor Jaeger reconstructs the origin and growth of Demosthenes' policy.

After a reconstruction of the emotional and political status of Greece up to the downfall of the Second Confederacy and a discussion of the youth, education, and early legal career of Demosthenes, the study takes up his turn to politics. His political career began, according to Professor Jaeger's interpretation of the speeches, *Against Androtion*, *Against Timocrates*, and *Against Leptines*, in support of the financial policy of Eubulus. Demosthenes' first speeches on foreign policy, *On The Symmories*, *For the Megalopolitans*, *On The Freedom of the Rhodians*, and *Against Aristocrates*, indicate the development of Demosthenes' interest from financial to foreign affairs and his gradual break with the party of Eubulus and the policy of isolation. Professor Jaeger's exposition of Demosthenes' policy and its motivation proves convincingly the soundness of the statesman's advice on the Messenian and Rhodian questions, but the treatment of the Thracian question is less satisfactory.

In the *First Philippic* we see the tremendous effect that Philip's advance to the Hellespont had on the views of Demosthenes. Henceforth, he sets out on his unwavering policy of opposition to Philip and is ceaseless in his efforts to intensify in the Athenians the ideals of the city state. He is a leader with a fixed purpose and unbounded enthusiasm. He must revivify the Athenians. He achieved his purpose slowly and with difficulty, but just before the battle of Chaeronea he not only aroused the Athenians to an intense feeling of unselfish patriotism but even inspired a Greek national spirit which was quite unparalleled.

Professor Jaeger asserts that the Greek genius proved itself capable of even greater achievements in the direction of Hellenism. He counterbalances this assertion with the qualification that this genius would have worn itself out if it had retained its previous form of existence, the city state. However, Professor Jaeger attributes the present-day opposition to Demosthenes, which gives Philip gigantic stature, unduly elevates Aeschines and Isocrates and, as a corollary, reduces Demosthenes and his associates to little pygmies, to a shift in perspective on the false analogy of the

unification of Germany and Italy. Moreover, he says that we ought to be advanced enough to see that perspectives are never absolute. He raises the question whether these opponents of Demosthenes who emphasize so strongly the historical necessity of the world's material events overlook the inherent spiritual necessity of Demosthenes' personality and his struggle. Furthermore, he says that the preservation of the city state was of vital importance to Demosthenes and to all his more discerning contemporaries. Indeed, this whole study argues that we must recognize this for an understanding of the policy of Demosthenes. Yet, granting that the heroism of Demosthenes, the rise of Macedon, and the cosmopolitanism of Hellenism were necessary to produce our present culture, still the very concept of historical necessity and law of development tends to limit our perspective and even causes us to underestimate the spiritual structure and the potential capability of a people.

This study closes with an Appendix on Isocrates' oration *For the Plataeans*. The notes, of which there are more than fifty pages, are full and exceedingly valuable. There is an Index of quoted classical authors and another of names and words which is quite exhaustive and most useful.

JAMES F. CRONIN

JUDSON COLLEGE

Hints for Teachers

[Edited by Dorothy M. Bell, Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio. The aims of this department are threefold: to assist the inexperienced teacher of Latin, to help the experienced teacher keep in touch with matters of interest to the professional world, and to serve as a receiving center and distributing point for questions and contributions on teaching problems. Questions will be answered by mail or in the pages of this department. Contributions in the form of short paragraphs dealing with projects, tests, interest devices, methods, and material are requested. Anything intended for publication should be typed on stationery of regular size. All correspondence should be addressed to the editor of this department.]

More on the Combined Third- and Fourth-Year Classes

The article by Mr. John K. Colby on *A Plan for Combined Third- and Fourth-Year Classes* in the February issue of the CLASSICAL JOURNAL was timely and of great interest. We can all agree with Mr. Colby that whoever "sired such a system" was neither a good classicist nor a teacher under such a scheme.

Mr. Colby's point on the inequality of pupil preparation under this arrangement and the consequent tendency to drop Latin are only too true. All Latin teachers are agreed upon that point. Since we have a similar problem here at the Franklin Day School, let me set forth our plan whereby we have endeavored to maintain interest and not destroy all the value of the study of Latin.

In the average school where a combined third- and fourth-year class exists it is not practical nor desirable to give Cicero at the end of the second year. Perhaps my ideas are heretical, but I believe that the values gained from reading much of Cicero, even though they are many, are oftentimes destroyed by the loss of interest that young people experience when they have a constant diet of Cicero. We have endeavored to avoid this in the second year by reading the more interesting parts of Caesar, and selections from Livy, especially from Books I, XXI, and XXII.

For our combined third- and fourth-year classes we have

adopted the following reading plan, which has been in effect, with minor variations, for seven or eight years. The courses are alternated from year to year. Course A: *Res Gestae* of Caesar Augustus, Two Orations of Cicero, Vergil's *Aeneid*, at least book I. Course B: Selections from Ovid's *Metamorphoses*, graduated in difficulty, or further selections from Livy, Vergil's *Aeneid*, Books II, IV, VI, and selections from the last six books. Thus we have a full year of Vergil and another year comprising Caesar Augustus, Cicero, Livy, and Ovid.

The one bad feature of this plan is that the continuity of Vergil is broken. But to bring students fresh from second-year Latin to Vergil's *Aeneid* is also a poor practice. We feel that it is better to try to prepare the pupils for Vergil by an introduction to Latin poetry through the medium of Ovid than to avoid a break in the reading of this great Latin masterpiece.

The arrangement, as it has been outlined and used, endeavors first, to maintain interest by the use of a selected body of interesting material, and secondly, to offer reading matter at the beginning of each year which is not too difficult for the incoming third-year student, and yet interesting and new to the student in his last year.

Mr. Colby is perfectly right when he says, "No plan for combined classes can be entirely satisfactory." It is no credit to a teaching system that a teaching set-up of this kind is allowed.

Are we not, as secondary Latin teachers, too conservative, too traditionally minded in our reading? In other words, have we made a truly great effort to break from the traditional order of Latin reading in the secondary school?

JACOB M. HORST

FRANKLIN DAY SCHOOL
BALTIMORE, MARYLAND

For the Bulletin Board

A two-page restoration in color of the Roman town of Venta Silurum (modern Caerwent), the only town established by the Romans in Wales, and which lay athwart the South Wales road, appears in the *Illustrated London News* for March 18, 1939.

Latin Newspaper

Nuntius, annual edition, has been published by the students of the Latin Department of the High School of Little Rock, Arkansas. This fourteen-page edition has been dedicated to the Muses and is noteworthy for its general excellence. Many of its articles deal with the Muses, their origin and significance, and their appearance in English poetry. Other articles tell of school life, or are items of a wide variety of current interest. A frieze of the Muses adorns the front page.

Foreign Correspondence

Latin pupils of Latrobe High School, Latrobe, Pennsylvania, are carrying on a lively correspondence on matters of school life, items of archaeological interest, etc., with Italian pupils in Florence, Udine, Torino, Livorno, Bologna, Como, and elsewhere in Italy. Contacts for similar correspondence may be established through Dr. Luciano de Feo, Director, Istituto Nazionale per le Relazioni Culturali con L'Estero, Rome, Italy.

The Classical Influence in English (Part V)¹**THE RENAISSANCE, 1500-1650**

To an Elizabethan such commonplace words of our modern vocabulary as *excursion*, *hereditary*, *conspicuous*, *habitual*, *impersonal*, and *benefit* must have seemed exceedingly strange, for they belong to a large group of words introduced into English during the Renaissance. The Revival of Learning in England coupled with the introduction of printing resulted in extensive borrowing from the Latin. This borrowing differed from that of previous periods in that it was almost altogether the result of conscious effort.

Most linguistic changes take place so naturally that the people speaking the language are hardly aware of them. In the Renaissance, however, there arose a perfectly conscious movement on the part of scholars and authors to enrich the English vocabulary by direct borrowing from other languages. Words from Latin were

¹ Parts I, II, III, IV, *CLASSICAL JOURNAL* XXXIV (1939), 310-312; 370-372; 435-437; 502-504.

therefore imported in wholesale fashion with the idea of "improving" the language.

William Caxton, who introduced printing into England about 1476, as author and translator was impressed with the beauty and impressiveness of the Latin and French languages and wished to make English their equal. In consequence he borrowed so freely from these languages that his readers were often puzzled by the strange words with which they were confronted. Many other writers and translators treated the language with like freedom. Had it not been for the reactionists, who opposed this excessive foreign borrowing, the Latinists would practically have turned English into "a sort of mongrel Latin dialect."

But throughout the period there seems to have been, for the most part, a generous liberalism which allowed a writer to introduce whatever words he could make use of. Two writers outstanding for their innovations were Sir Thomas Elyot and his contemporary, Sir Thomas More. Thus we see that in the sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries individuals played an important part in the making of English.

Approximately 10,000 words were borrowed during the Renaissance period from 1500 to 1650.² About half of this number have become a permanent part of our language. As a large majority were from Latin, this period is sometimes known as the Latin influence of the Fourth Period.

An analysis of these borrowings shows that they were largely learned or semi-learned words. There was no reason why common objects should be given new names, but ideas of a more or less abstract nature frequently required the invention of a new term. Even when the language already possessed a fairly adequate word, the invention of a synonymous one often enabled a writer to express himself more musically or more rhythmically. Most of the new words entered English by way of the written language. Dr. Baugh points out that they are a good example of the ease with which the printed page can pass into everyday speech, for many of them which were of a distinctly learned character in the begin-

² Albert C. Baugh, *History of the English Language*: New York, D. Appleton-Century Co. (1935), 287.

ning had already attained a widespread popular use by the time of Shakespeare and his contemporaries.

In evaluating the classical contribution to our language Dr. Krapp says:

The French influence of the Middle English period followed by the Classical influence of the Renaissance period, both working upon the solid and constant Teutonic base, these are the great influences which have made the English language what it is, have given it a variety, a richness, and an adaptability that enabled a great poet like Shakespeare to use it as the measure not only of all English thought, but of the thought of the Western World.⁸

No later period of English has borrowed words so freely, for by the beginning of the seventeenth century the English vocabulary in its main outlines was fixed once and for all. But this habit of borrowing has never entirely ceased and probably will never cease, for the number of Latin words already in the language makes the formation of new words from the same source seem a natural procedure.

JEANETTE FAGER

LINCOLN HIGH SCHOOL

CANTON, OHIO

General Language

Is the teaching of General Language justifiable? First let us consider the purpose of a General Language course. There seem to be two schools of thought on that question. One claims that the purpose should be exploratory, i.e., the child should be given a bit of French, Latin, German, Italian, etc., and from these smatterings should be able to decide which language he prefers to take when he enters high school.

This purpose seems inadequate for several reasons. First, it doesn't seem that an eighth-grade pupil can get enough of any one language to decide which he prefers to continue when in high school. Second, in most cases he has already chosen his high-school course before he enters the General Language course and has already been assigned some language. Third, it would be quite a difficult task to find a teacher who could teach five or six languages equally well.

⁸ George Philip Krapp, *Modern English—Its Growth and Present Use*: New York, Charles Scribners' Sons (1909), 250.

The second group maintains that the purpose of a General Language course should be to give a unified survey of language in general, i.e., it should be a foundation course in language.

This latter purpose seems to me a more practical one to follow. If it is to be a foundation course, I think the best foundation any pupil can have in any language is to have a firm foundation in his own. With this idea in mind, I spend a great deal of time in my General Language course teaching English grammar. I drill on those points that I find cause trouble in my Latin and French classes, e.g., simple, progressive, and emphatic forms of verbs, voice, mood, tense and tense signs, meanings of negative, affirmative, interrogation, conjugation, declension, gerunds, infinitives, participles, principal parts of verbs, etc.

We also include a study of foreign phrases and abbreviations, derivations of words, prefixes, suffixes, stories of words, dictionary and background work, and give a few songs, mottoes, rhymes, etc. to arouse the interest of the students.

The results of this course, as shown in the French and Latin classes at the end of the first marking period of this year, were as follows: Of the students in French 1, 47 in all, 14 had taken the General Language course and 33 had not. The 14 students who had taken the General Language course won 11 A's, 2 B's, and 1 C; the other group of 33 won 4 A's, 8 B's, 5 C's, 8 D's, 5 E's, and 3 F's. In Latin 1 there were 51 students, of whom 24 took the General Language course and 27 did not. The 24 students who had taken the General Language course won 7 A's, 9 B's, 3 C's, 4 D's, and 1 E; the other group of 27 won no A's, 2 B's, 8 C's, 5 D's, 3 E's, and 9 F's.

When the students were questioned in regard to the benefits they had received from their General Language course, they all favored such a course and claimed that the chief carry-over from General Language to their Latin and French was from the English grammar drill. They also said that the prefix and suffix study helped them in their subsequent vocabulary work.

ALICE M. HOUDE

NORTHEAST JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL
HARTFORD, CONN.

Current Events

[Edited by Clarence W. Gleason, Roxbury Latin School, Boston, Mass., for territory covered by the Association of New England and the Atlantic States; Dwight N. Robinson, Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware, Ohio, for the Middle States east of the Mississippi River; G. A. Harrer, the University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, N. C., for the Southeastern States; Russel M. Geer, Tulane University, New Orleans, La., for the Lower Mississippi Valley and the Southwest; Alfred P. Dorjahn, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill., and Franklin H. Potter, the University of Iowa, Iowa City, Ia., for the Middle Western States. News from the Pacific Coast may be sent to Fred L. Farley, College of the Pacific, Stockton, Calif.]

This department will present everything that is properly news of general appeal, but considerations of space compel the editors to ask that items be made as brief as possible. Whenever feasible, it is preferable to print programs of meetings which would draw an attendance from a large area as live news in advance of the date rather than as dead news after the event. In this connection it should be remembered that the December issue, e.g., appears on November fifteenth and that items must be in hand five or six weeks in advance of the latter date.]

Classical Association of New England

At the thirty-fourth annual meeting of the Classical Association of New England, held at Connecticut College, New London, on March 31 and April 1, the following officers for 1939-40 were elected: president, Harry E. Burton, Dartmouth College; vice-president, Sylvia Lee, The Winsor School, Boston; secretary-treasurer, John W. Spaeth, Jr., Wesleyan University; additional members of the Executive Committee, Edith Bancroft, Reading, Massachusetts; F. Warren Wright, Smith College; Alfred M. Dame, Middlebury College; and Mabel W. Leseman, South Portland High School, Maine; representative on the Council of the American Classical League, Hattie M. Holt, Cranston High School, Rhode Island.

J.W.S., JR.

Classical Museum of Vassar College

In the early part of the present academic year Vassar College opened a beautifully arranged, though small, Classical Museum in the transformed Latin lecture-room of Avery Hall. The general plan, the color scheme—ivory, terra-cotta, and black—and the arrangement of exhibits are largely the work of Professor Elizabeth Hazleton Haight, who is also Curator of the Museum. In addition to the well-distributed wall cases, table cases, and pedestal ex-

hibits, the windows have been effectively utilized for the display of ancient glass in such a way that the sun shining through gives additional beauty to the opalescence. The College hopes soon to have funds to issue an occasional illustrated bulletin, but at present can only invite its friends to send for an illustrated reprint from the March issue of the *Vassar Alumni Magazine*.

At the formal opening, October 20, Miss Gisela M. A. Richter, Curator of Classical Art in the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York, gave an illustrated lecture on "Adventures of Archaeology in a Museum." We trust that future students of the classics at Vassar may have many such adventures.

Louisiana

On February 27 a debate was sponsored by the Classical Club of St. Mary's Dominican College, New Orleans, in the college auditorium. The subject of the debate was: "Should Latin be required for a B.A. degree?" Participating were members of the club, upholding the affirmative against non-members. The winning team was the affirmative side, Wilfrida Bowen and Grace McNamara; losers were Dorothy Walters and Teresa Lorio; judges were members of the faculty, Leo. M. Shea, O.P., Anselm M. Townsend, O.P., and Raymond E. Kavanah, O.P. The president of the club is Grace McMamara.

Massachusetts

In spite of the stormy weather on February 11, the annual meeting of the Eastern Massachusetts Section of the Classical Association of New England and the Classical Club of Greater Boston was well attended. The program was as follows: "A Word of Welcome," George A. Land, President; "Problems—Not of Democracy," John P. Jewell, Wellesley High School; "Narrative Inconsistencies in Homer and Oral Poetry," Albert B. Lord, Harvard University; "A World Without Latin," Guy E. Moulton, Roxbury Latin School; and "High Lights of the Egyptian Department" (illustrated), by Dows Dunham, Curator of Egyptian Art, Boston Museum of Fine Arts. The following officers for 1939-40 were chosen: president, Elizabeth C. Evans, Wheaton College; secretary, George E. Lane, Thayer Academy; executive committee, Louise Packard, Winsor School; Donald Cameron, Boston University; Frank A. Kennedy, Boston Girls' High School; Earl W. Taylor, Roxbury Latin School.

Tennessee Philological Association

On March 3-4 the Tennessee Philological Association held its thirty-third annual meeting at Chattanooga, Tennessee, at the University of Chattanooga, the Tennessee Chapter of the American Association of Teachers of French meeting with it in joint session. The following papers presented are of interest to classical students and teachers: "Ovid to the Women," Graves Hayden Thompson, Cumberland University; "Pronunciation of Classic

Words in English," James A. Robins, Vanderbilt University; "Whiggery—Roman and English: Nicholas Rowe's Translation of Lucan's *Pharsalia*," John B. Emperor, University of Tennessee; "Antiquities of the Ancients," Arthur H. Moser, University of Tennessee; "Conventional Aspects of Longus' *Daphnis and Chloe*," Thomas Cutt, Webb School; "Some References to Children in Roman Art and Literature," Miles Woods, Martin College; "One Excuse for Considius," Charles E. Little, Peabody College; "The Renaissance of Greek Tragedy on the Contemporary American Stage," Albert Rapp, University of Tennessee; "Mussolini, *Restitutor Urbis*," H. J. Bassett, Southwestern.

Resolutions were adopted on the death of Ashton Waugh McWhorter, Professor of Latin and Greek in the University of Tennessee. Officers elected for 1939-40 were: president, Graves H. Thompson, Cumberland University; vice-president, Charles S. Pendleton, George Peabody College; secretary-treasurer, Edwin Lee Johnson, Vanderbilt University. Professor R. B. Steele, Vanderbilt University, is president emeritus of the Association.

Fellowship Award

Michael Ginsburg, Associate Professor of Classics at the University of Nebraska, has been appointed to a fellowship of the Guggenheim Foundation for a study of the social policy of the Roman emperors in their efforts to improve the conditions of the economically weaker groups of Roman society, for a term of twelve months beginning September, 1939.

Recent Books¹

[Compiled by Herbert Newell Couch, Brown University]

- ABERCROMBIE, N., *Saint Augustine and French Classical Thought*: New York, Oxford University Press (1938). Pp. 123.
- AESCHYLUS, *Zeven tegen Thebe*, met inleiding, critische noten en commentaar door Dr. P. Groeneboom: Groningen, Wolters (1938). Pp. 266. Fl. 4.90.
- ANDERSON, PAUL L., *Pugnax, The Gladiator*: New York, D. Appleton-Century Co. (1939). Pp. 296. \$2.00.
- BARWICK, KARL, *Caesars Commentarii und das Corpus Caesarianum, "Philologus"*, Supplementband xxxi, Heft 2": Leipzig, Dieterich (1938). Pp. iv + 222. RM 15.
- BESIG, HANS, *Gorgo und Gorgoneion in der archaischen Kunst* (Doctor's Thesis): Berlin, Markert (1937).
- BIBLIOTHECA PHILologICA CLASSICA, Vol. LXIII, 1936: Leipzig, Reisland (1938). Pp. x + 304.
- CARCOPINO, J., *La vie quotidienne à Rome à l'apogée de l'Empire*: Paris, Hachette (1939). Fr. 25.
- CHARLES, J. F., *Statutes of Limitation at Athens* (Doctor's Thesis): Chicago, University of Chicago Libraries (1938). Pp. iii + 74.
- CHEADLE, J. R., *Basic Greek Vocabulary*: London, Macmillan (1939). Pp. 49. 1s.9d.
- CROSSMAN, R. H. S., *Plato Today*: New York, Oxford University Press (1939). Pp. 318. \$2.50.
- DIEHL, W., *Die wörtlichen Beziehungen zwischen Ilias und Odyssee* (Doctor's Thesis): Erlangen, Bruck-Krah (1938). Pp. 137.
- EARP, CRONGE BURNFORD, *A Study of the Fragments of Three Related Plays of Accius* (Doctor's Thesis): Scottdale, Pa., Mennonite Publishing House (1939). Pp. 106.
- ENGLISH, B. R., *The Problem of Freedom in Greece from Homer to Pindar, "University of Toronto Studies"*: New York, Oxford University Press. 6s.
- ENNIS, MARY GRATIA, *The Vocabulary of the Institutiones of Cassiodorus*, With Special Advertence to the Technical Terminology and its Sources (Doctor's Thesis), "The Catholic University of America Studies in Medieval and Renaissance Latin," Vol. IX: Washington, D. C., The Catholic University of America Press (1939). Pp. xvi + 171.

¹ Including books received at the Editorial Office of the CLASSICAL JOURNAL, Washington University, St. Louis, Mo.

- ESPERANDIEU, ÉMILE, *Recueil général des bas-reliefs, statues, et bustes de la Gaule romaine*, xi: Paris, Leroux (1938). Pp. 128. Fr. 110.
- EURIPIDES, *Medea*, Edited by D. L. Page: New York, Oxford University Press (1938). Pp. 258. \$2.75.
- GROSS, W. H., *Studien zu den Bildnissen Trajans* (Doctor's Thesis): Berlin, Mann (1938). Pp. 64.
- HENDERSON, A., *Pagan and Christian Symbols, Some Studies in Comparative Religion*: London, Skeffington (1938). Pp. 93. 2s.
- JERNIGAN, CHARLTON C., *Incongruity in Aristophanes* (Doctor's Thesis): Menasha, Wisconsin, George Banta (1939). Pp. 48.
- JONES, FRANK P., *The ab urbe condita Construction in Greek, A Study in the Classification of the Particle* (Doctor's Thesis): Baltimore, Linguistic Society of America (1939). Pp. 96.
- LINDSAY, JACK, *To Arms!*, A Story of Ancient Gaul, Illustrated by M. Tyas: London, Oxford University Press (1938). Pp. 287. 5s.
- MAGNIEN, VICTOR, *Les mystères d'Eleusis*²: Paris, Payot (1938). Pp. 368, 10 figures, 8 plates. Fr. 50.
- MEYER, M., *Le mystère de l'amour platonique*: Paris, Dangles (1938). Fr. 25.
- MOREY, C. R., *The Mosaics of Antioch*: New York, Longmans, Green and Co. (1938). Pp. iv+78, illustrated. \$4.00.
- OLZSCHO, KARL, *Interpretation der Agramer Mumienbinde*, "Klio, Neue Folge, 27, Beiheft": Leipzig, Dieterich (1939). Pp. viii+217. RM 13.
- OPPERMANN, H., *Vergil*: Frankfurt a.M., Diesterweg (1938). Pp. 71. RM 2.
- PASCHALL, DOROTHY MAY, *The Vocabulary of Mental Aberration in Roman Comedy and Petronius* (Doctor's Thesis): Baltimore, Linguistic Society of America (1939). Pp. 88.
- PEETERS, FÉLIX, *Le Culte de Jupiter en Espagne d'après les inscriptions, "Revue belge de philologie et d'histoire, t. xvii"*; Bruxelles (1938). Pp. 158-886. 4 tableaux.
- PETRIE, A., *An Introduction to Roman History, Literature, and Antiquities*³: New York, Oxford University Press (1939). Pp. 133.
- PHELPS, WILLIAM G., *Two Roman Papers*: Shreveport, La., Centenary College (1939). Pp. iii+16. \$0.25.
- PISANI, S., *New Guide to Rome and its Environs*: Rome, Verdesi (1938). Pp. xxii+327, map, plans, illustrated. L. 10.
- PLUGGÉ, D. E., *History of Greek Play Production in American Colleges and Universities from 1881 to 1936*: New York, Teacher's College (1938). Pp. xii+175. \$1.85.
- POWELL, J. E., *Greek in the University, An Inaugural Lecture*: New York, Oxford University Press (1938). Pp. 14. 1s.
- PRATT, NORMAN T., JR., *Dramatic Suspense in Seneca and in His Greek Precursors* (Doctor's Thesis): Princeton, Princeton University Press (1939). Pp. 120. \$2.00.

- REBOUX, PAUL, *Les deux amours de Cléopâtre*: Paris, Fayard (1938). Fr. 10.
- ROBINSON, C. E., AND HUNTER, P. G., *Roma*, A Reader for the Second Stage of Latin: Cambridge, at the University Press (1938). Pp. 126, illustrated. 2s.6d.
- Roman Aeneas*, Selections from Virgil's *Aeneid*, I-VI, With a Connecting Narrative in English by P. J. Loseby: Cambridge, at the University Press (1939). Pp. 214. 3s.
- SCHWYZER, EDUARD, *Griechische Grammatik*, Wortbildung und Flexion, "von Müller's *Handbuch der Altertumswissenschaft*": München, C. H. Beck (1939). Pp. xlvii +415-842. Geh. RM 25 less 25% discount.
- SEVERYNS, A., *Recherches sur la chrestomathie de Proclus*, Part I, *Le Codex 239 de Photius*, Vol. I, *Étude paléographique et critique*, "Bibliothèque de la Faculté de Philosophie et Lettres de l'Université de Liège," Fascicule LXXXIX: Paris, E. Droz (1938). Pp. xvi +404. Illustrated.
- SEVERYNS, A., *Recherches sur la chrestomathie de Proclus*, Part I, *Le Codex 239 de Photius*, Vol. II, *Texte Traduction Commentaire*, "Bibliothèque de la Faculté de Philosophie et Lettres de l'Université de Liège," Fascicule LXXXIX: Paris, E. Droz (1938). Pp. 296.
- TRAUB, WALTER, *Auffassung und Gestaltung der Cleopatra in der englischen Literatur* (Doctor's Thesis): Würzburg (1937). Pp. 108.
- VON FRITZ, KURT, *Philosophie und sprachlicher Ausdruck bei Demokrit, Plato, und Aristoteles*: New York, Stechert (1938). Pp. 92. \$1.50.
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